

A dual de-icing system for wind turbine blades combining high-power ultrasonic guided waves and low-frequency forced vibrations

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Abstract

Wind turbines mounted on cold climate sites are subject to icing which could significantly influence the performance of the turbine blades for harvesting wind energy. In this study, an innovative dual de-icing system under development is described. This either prevents ice accumulation (anti-icing) or removes any ice layer present on the surface of the blade material (de-icing). A modelling study on ultrasonic guided waves propagating in composite blades was used to determine the optimal frequency and location of the transducers for ensuring wave propagation, causing the required level of energy concentration and resulting shear stress across the leading edge of the turbine's blade. In parallel, the effects of low frequency vibrations have been investigated through modal and harmonic analyses. This allowed specification and optimisation of the positioning of shaker(s), together with the magnitude and direction of harmonic forces required to induce sufficient acceleration to the blade surface for ice removal. An appropriate survey was also carried out to evaluate the potential for fatigue failure of the blade due to harmonic forces induced by shakers. The proposed technique configures and presents an active solution for the icing problem, allowing safe and reliable operation of wind turbines in adverse weather conditions.

Keywords: Wind turbine blades, de-icing, ultrasonic guided waves, low frequency vibration, fatigue

1. Introduction

Nowadays wind energy is one of the leading renewable energy sources. An important issue is the location of sites which are sufficiently windy to gain maximum efficiency. However many areas offering high potential for harvesting wind energy are exposed to low temperature over winter and this, together with the resultant icing, affects the operational performance of wind turbines. One of the major problems is ice accretion on turbine blades which produces significant change in the aerodynamic geometry of the blade's surface. As a result, it can considerably reduce the efficiency of wind turbines. Furthermore, icing can cause imbalance in blades leading to increased wear in structural components such as connectors, couplers, gearbox etc. Safety hazards may also result, especially in residential areas, as large pieces of ice may be thrown from turbine blades during operation. In extreme cases, turbine operation may have to be halted until weather conditions become suitable, affecting overall energy production.

To alleviate the above-mentioned problems raised by ice formation on turbine blades a number of techniques have been developed and tested to anti-ice and/or de-ice the blades. Methods in current use include surface coating, antifreeze chemicals, electrical resistance heating, hot air circulation, pulse electrothermal de-icing, manual chip-off, etc. However there are drawbacks and limitations for the full industrial uptake of these methods. For example,

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42 chemicals do not remain on the blade surfaces for a long time period and even coated surfaces
43 cannot effectively prevent ice formation [1]. Also all existing thermal de-icing methods demand
44 a high level of power to operate. Consumed power may reach 12% and 15% of the turbine's
45 nominal power output in the cases of electrical resistance heating and hot air circulation
46 respectively [2]. Apart from the issue of energy consumption, the high temperature induced in
47 the blade by thermal techniques may pose a serious risk for the integrity of composite blades [2].
48 Other developing methods such as microwave heating have either poor performance or low
49 energy efficiency [3]. The drawbacks and limitations of existing ice control approaches indicate
50 the potential for development of a new reliable and cost-effective de-icing technology.

51 A relatively new strategy used for ice protection systems is ultrasonic guided waves (UGW)
52 for which a few research projects have recently been reported [4-6]. This method is well known
53 for non-destructive testing applications in which the waves propagate in a low frequency range
54 (typically between 20 and 100 kHz for long-range ultrasonic testing). Based on wave theory,
55 ultrasonic waves cause displacements and stresses inside a material as they propagate through it.
56 Therefore they have the potential for removing ice accumulated on different surfaces. For
57 example, Venna et al [7] applied ultrasonic waves of 1 kHz frequency on an aluminium airfoil
58 structure which matched its resonance frequency and de-iced the airfoil. They could manage to
59 shed off the ice 130 seconds after excitation of piezoelectric excitation patches. The shear and
60 normal stresses measured during their experiment for achieving this reached 7.5 MPa and 25
61 MPa respectively. JL Palacios [8] tested ultrasound waves for helicopter blade anti-icing and de-
62 icing using two distinct modes: transverse and shear, which were effective on leading edges at
63 both short range and over longer distances. For short distances near the transducers, de-icing
64 results were excellent using ultrasound powers of up to 0.37 W/cm² which is very energy
65 efficient compared with thermal ice protection systems. Part of the current research has been
66 built on this previous research.

67 Another technique associated with the current work is low-frequency vibrations whose
68 background dates back to 1978 when Bell Helicopter performed a feasibility study on the
69 application of mechanical vibrations to prevent ice accretion on helicopter blades [9]. In that
70 research, an electric motor was used to vibrate a helicopter's main blade in beamwise and/or
71 torsional modes close to the blade's major natural frequencies to induce maximum excited
72 energy into its structure. It was found that harmonic forces generating acceleration of 25 to 30g
73 at a low frequency range between 0 and 50 Hz could lead to satisfactory de-icing. Results for de-
74 icing of the helicopter blade proved to be more effective in the most critical areas of the blade
75 near to the hub while being less efficient at the leading edge. However, for wind turbines, the
76 leading edge of the blade is of high importance for de-icing or protection against freezing [5, 9].
77 Hence the dual system which has been studied here combines low frequency vibrations and
78 ultrasonic waves in an attempt to provide total blade coverage. An efficient de-icing system that
79 does not impair structural integrity while providing deicing for the entire structure of the blades
80 is desirable. For this reason, in parallel with deicing potential, the potential reduction of the
81 blade's life due to fatigue effects has to be considered.

82 **2. Current vibratory deicing approaches**

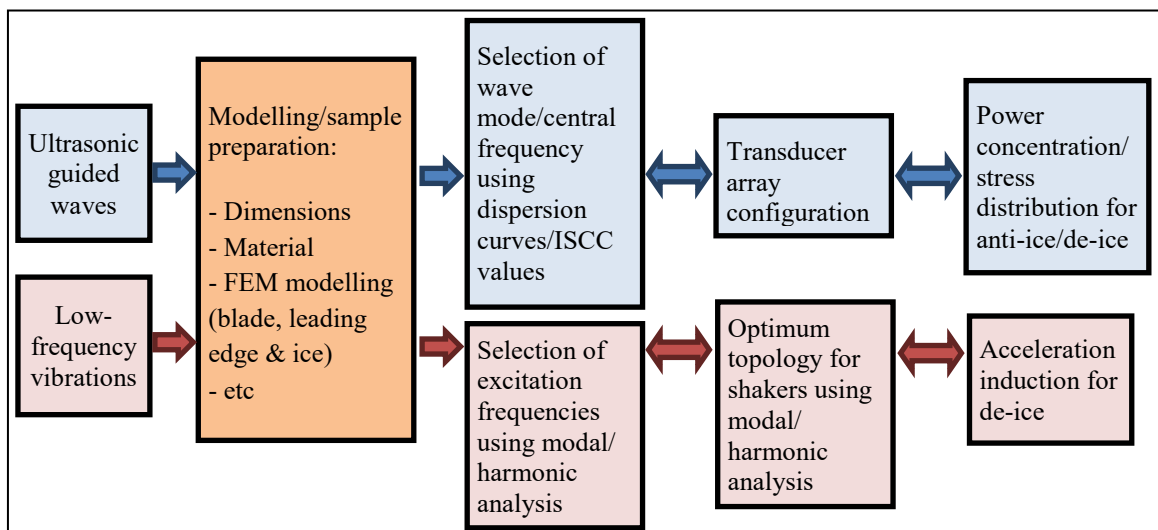
83 **2.1 Overview**

84 As mentioned above, earlier attempts to deice helicopter blades have shown that low-
85 frequency vibrations are highly effective in de-icing across the blades except at the leading
86 edges, whilst the application of ultrasound (US) have been proved to be very good at de-icing
87 merely at surfaces such as the leading edge of the blade where the US power density is high.
88 Hence the present work, as its main innovation, combines these two techniques, so that one
89 subsystem will compensate for the deficiencies of the other. This approach provides sufficient

90 energy induced to the blades through both internally exciting particles of the material and
 91 externally shaking the whole structure. In the former case, wave propagation towards the leading
 92 edge causes the shear stress required to break the ice-substrate bond while in the latter,
 93 acceleration generated in the blade causes the ice to be shaken off. The system is estimated to
 94 consume low power to fulfil these tasks, which is another advantage. This point will be briefly
 95 explained in the sample results.

96 The present work focused on modelling to develop a reliable ice protection system for anti-
 97 icing and/or de-icing wind turbine blades. Simulation plays a crucial role in designing the system
 98 as it should verify that the waves can propagate through a composite blade. Also the harmonic
 99 forces and the locations of the shakers need to be determined to check whether or not they can
 100 generate sufficient acceleration in the critical areas of the blade without causing serious damage.
 101 The fatigue life of the blade due to low-frequency vibrations caused by shakers is potentially
 102 significant and should be investigated. In fact, since the first mode shapes of the blade structure
 103 particularly with frequencies below 50 Hz are crucially important, previous studies on the fatigue
 104 analysis of wind turbine blades have been mainly based on these frequencies (see, for example,
 105 [10, 11, 12]). Fatigue analysis in the current work has been carried out for different scenarios in
 106 forced vibrations to confirm that the new approach does not endanger wind turbine blade
 107 structural integrity.

108 Figure 1 outlines the steps taken in developing the ice protection system in the current work.
 109 The relevant details for each term along with modelling procedure are presented in the following
 110 sections.



111
 112 Fig. 1: Flowchart of measures taken for de-icing/anti-icing the wind turbine blade

113 2.2 Ultrasonic guided waves

114 Preliminary research on helicopter blade de-icing via ultrasonic guided waves was carried out
 115 by Palacios et al [8, 13]. The idea is the induction of shear stress in such a way that interfacial
 116 stress between ice and substrate exceeds the adhesion strength between them. However the
 117 question was how to generate such a stress that exceeds the bond strength while reducing the in-
 118 plane shear stress inside the substrate to avoid any damage to the blade. The resolution found for
 119 this challenge was presented through the concept of Interfacial Stress Concentration Coefficients
 120 (ISCC) to calculate the normalized interface shear stress for different combinations of ultrasonic
 121 guided wave modes and frequencies [4]. In fact, ISCC is a value used for assessing the capability
 122 to induce enough stress into the interface for a given amount of power. In other words, ISCC is a
 123 normalized value to optimize frequency, mode and power for generating maximum interface

124 shear stress. For this reason, the current work considers this value as one of the main criteria in
 125 the following analyses and simulations regarding ultrasonic guided waves. Therefore dispersion
 126 curves with ISCC were first calculated to investigate the best frequency and wave mode, then an
 127 analysis of power concentration and stress distribution was conducted.

128 By modelling the complex vibration modes present in the different sample configurations, it
 129 was possible to determine a dispersion curve and predict the dispersive properties of each blade
 130 configuration or plate structure to a reasonable level of accuracy. This was performed using
 131 eigenfrequency and time dependent analysis in the structural mechanics module. An
 132 eigenfrequency analysis is an effective tool for describing natural behaviour for a structural
 133 geometry when resonating. In addition, time dependent analysis was used to investigate the
 134 transient power and stress distribution and ultrasound propagation generated from transducer
 135 arrays.

136 An eigenfrequency analysis based on FEM provided the mode shape and natural frequency
 137 information. Two critical parameters were still required in order to plot a dispersion curve: phase
 138 velocity and wavelength. Wavelength could be determined by observing the mode shape for each
 139 eigenfrequency. Wavelength defines the distance travelled by a complete wave (1 peak and 1
 140 trough), and the phase velocity at that frequency could therefore be calculated using the
 141 following equation.

$$\lambda = \frac{L}{n}, v_p = \lambda f \quad (1)$$

142 where L is the length of the geometry being modelled (e.g. leading edge of the blade) and n is the
 143 number of complete cycles observed from the mode shape.

144 To calculate the number of cycles, a 1D plot of the mode shape variation along the central line
 145 of the leading edge was produced (see Fig. 5 for the studied central line on the blade leading
 146 edge). The data extracted here were post-processed using a script which loaded and plotted the
 147 total displacement variation data, and counted the number of peaks and troughs for each wave
 148 mode for the entire range of eigenfrequencies. Using this information, the number of cycles was
 149 calculated using the following formula:

$$n = \frac{N_{of\ peaks} + N_{of\ troughs}}{2} \quad (2)$$

150 Once the number of cycles had been calculated, the wave length for that mode and its phase
 151 velocity was also calculated, and a phase velocity dispersion curve was generated. The maximum
 152 of the mesh size is normally less than 1/10 of the wavelength at the frequency of interest, and the
 153 mesh size was set as 2mm in the model. Also the Interface Stress Concentration Coefficient
 154 (ISCC) is defined by the following equation when the axis x is the direction of wave propagation

$$ISCC = \frac{\sigma_{yz}|_{layer\ interface}}{\sqrt{power}} \quad (3)$$

155 where σ_{yz} is the component of stress tensor in yz plane at the interface between sample and ice,
 156 and power is defined by the following equation when z is the direction along thickness

$$power = \int_{thickness} P_x dz \quad (4)$$

157 where P is the Poynting's vector defining the power flow on the structure and $P = [P_x, P_y, P_z]$.
 158 The parameter P governs the equation below:

$$P = \frac{-\vec{v}^* \cdot \sigma}{2} \quad (5)$$

159 where \vec{v} is particle velocity, $*$ is the complex conjugate and σ is the stress tensor.

160 The ISCC is a measurement of how much shear stress can be produced at the interface
 161 between ice and substrate for a given produced power per metre. When the interface shear stress
 162 exceeds the adhesive shear strength of ice to the sample surface, de-icing will be achieved. The
 163 larger the ISCC, the less ultrasonic power is required to generate blade cleaning. Large ISCC
 164 points on the dispersion curves show large normalised interface shear stress rather than large
 165 physical stresses at the ice interface. A minimisation in the required excitation power could be
 166 achieved by considering a point on the dispersion curves with a large ISCC value, providing the
 167 sensor is available for resonating at the same frequency. The criteria for selecting the central
 168 frequency and wave mode for ultrasonic de-icing are: *a)* The larger the ISCC, the less power
 169 would be required for the de-icing system to be effective, *b)* the central frequency and wave
 170 mode should be non-dispersive. In the Results section, the dispersion curve and ISCC for a
 171 composite blade with varying thickness of glaze ice (one of the most common types of ice
 172 formed on blades) are calculated and optimised central frequency, phase velocity and wave
 173 length of ultrasonic wave are selected according to the criteria above.

174 2.3 FEM model

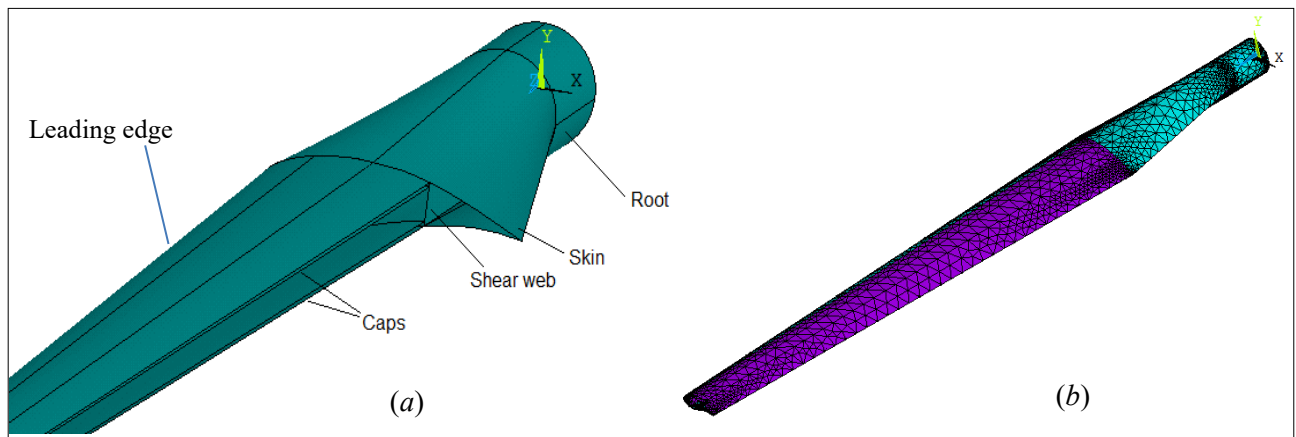
175 Finite Element Methods (FEM) based on numerical solutions of Partial Differential Equations
 176 (PDEs) offer a method for finding approximate numerical solutions of the natural frequencies of
 177 vibration and the mode shape as well as the propagation of ultrasound. The solution approach
 178 involves either eliminating the differential equations completely (steady state problems) or
 179 rendering the PDEs into an approximating system of ordinary differential equations, which are
 180 then solved numerically by integration using standard techniques such as Euler's method.

181 The current case study was selected as a 7.5-m composite blade of a V-15 wind turbine with
 182 75 kW power generation. This turbine uses blades of a basic NACA 44xx airfoil series [14]. All
 183 the geometrical details and physical properties of this blade can be found in [10] and [14]. Figure
 184 2(a) shows a view of the blade's cross sectional areas, with some parts of the shell surface
 185 removed to display the internal spar-box construction. In this figure, the three main parts of the
 186 blade's body namely skin, spar (shear webs) and caps are indicated. They were modelled with
 187 different thickness of 0.007 m, 0.009 m and 0.0156 m respectively. Figure 2(b) shows a
 188 representation of the created FEM model. The orthotropic mechanical properties of glass-
 189 reinforced composite utilised for the blade structure in the simulated model are given in Table 1.
 190 The density of this composite material was $\rho = 1860 \text{ kg/m}^3$ and its damping coefficient
 191 approximately $\zeta = 0.003$ [15].

192 Table 1: Mechanical properties of fiberglass composite used in the blade model

Mechanical properties	E_1 (GPa)	E_2 (GPa)	E_3 (GPa)	G_{12} (GPa)	G_{13} (GPa)	G_{23} (GPa)	ν_{23}	ν_{12}	ν_{13}
STEF-1 glass fabric	5.62	4.59	4.59	0.406	0.406	0.28	0.24	0.22	0.22

193



194
 195 Fig. 2: The wind turbine blade modelled in ANSYS a) a cross section area in the widest part of the blade,
 196 b) A representation of the whole FEM model

197 In the structure of a typical wind turbine blade, the root joint is usually metallic while it is
 198 covered by composite laminates internally and externally. The main body of the blade is then
 199 screwed to the hub through this strong root. This means that the root could act as a clamping wall
 200 for the rest of the blade with regard to its stiffness and all its six degrees of freedom are
 201 constrained. In the current study, the blade root was considered to be 6063-T5 aluminium alloy
 202 with the following properties: Young's modulus elasticity: 68.9 GPa, Poisson's Ratio: 0.33, shear
 203 modulus: 25.8 GPa, density: 2700 kg/m³ [16, 17].

204 The 3-D model was completed by creating surfaces which were then meshed via element
 205 SHELL181. This element is suitable for analysing thin to moderately-thick shell structures. It is
 206 a four-node element with six degrees of freedom at each node. SHELL181 is commonly used for
 207 layered applications for modelling composite shells or sandwich construction and therefore
 208 complies with the requirements of the current case. Since this element had to be used for
 209 different parts of the blade with different thickness and material, a lay-up was applied through
 210 sectioning the shell. It was then possible to allocate the correspondent properties to every part i.e.
 211 root, skin, shear webs and caps. Mesh congestion was increased in some edges or lines at which
 212 the slope of surfaces changed. A refinement study was then conducted to show that the model
 213 mesh size was sufficient for convergence. Finally a satisfactorily accurate model was built up
 214 using 16688 shell elements.

215 2.4 Low-frequency vibrations

216 The aim of applied low frequency vibration is to induce the largest acceleration possible into
 217 the blade, so as to prevent building up or induce cracking and detachment of ice. Exciting the
 218 structure close to one of its major resonance frequencies will produce a large vibration. So the
 219 resonant frequencies of the blade and the structure's response were investigated. However,
 220 exciting a structure too close to its resonant frequency could damage it. Therefore potential
 221 effects on fatigue life of the blade were studied to determine the tolerable stress range, whether
 222 yield or fatigue stress, that could be produced by the vibrators. The optimum topology of
 223 vibrators based on modal analysis of the blade and application criteria such as maximum induced
 224 acceleration were also determined.

225 2.4.1 Modal analysis

226 Having completed the model, its dynamical behaviour had to be studied and verified. Since
 227 the model developed here is similar to the case studied by Movaghghar and Lvov [10], the

228 dynamical characteristics of these two models were comparable. For this reason, a modal
 229 analysis was carried out to obtain the natural frequencies and mode shapes of the model.

230 Solving the general equation of motion of a structure with a negligible damping leads to an
 231 eigenvalue problem as follows:

$$[[K] - \omega^2[M]] = 0 \quad (6)$$

232 This is an eigenvalue problem which may be solved for up to n values of ω^2 and n eigenvectors
 233 $\{\phi_i\}$ which satisfy Eq. (6) where n is the number of DOFs. The natural frequencies are output:

$$f_i = \frac{\omega_i}{2\pi} \quad (7)$$

234 where f_i is the i th natural frequency.

235 Each eigenvector $\{\phi_i\}$ can be normalized as the following:

$$\{\phi_i\}^T [M] \{\phi_i\} = 1 \quad (8)$$

236 The eigenvectors $\{\phi_i\}$ represent the mode shapes - the shape assumed by the structure when
 237 vibrating at frequency f_i .

238 In this work, modal analysis was performed using the created FEM model. To solve the
 239 classic eigenvalue Eq. (6), the Block Lanczos Method was used to solve the eigenvalue problem
 240 in this task. The Block Lanczos eigenvalue solver uses the Lanczos algorithm where the Lanczos
 241 recursion is performed with a block of vectors. The Block Lanczos method is especially
 242 powerful when searching for eigenfrequencies in a given part of the eigenvalue spectrum of a
 243 given system.

244 2.4.2 Harmonic analysis

245 In this section, the structural responses at frequencies in the frequency band of interest were
 246 calculated and the spectrum graphs of response versus frequency plotted quantitatively. The
 247 harmonic analysis assumed that the applied loads and the steady-state response varied
 248 sinusoidally (harmonically) with time. The time-dependent equations of motion are given by:

$$[M]\{\ddot{u}\} + [C]\{\dot{u}\} + [K]\{u\} = \{F^a\} \quad (9)$$

249 All points in the structure are moving at the same known frequency, but not necessarily in
 250 phase. It is also known that the presence of damping $[C]$ causes phase shifts. Therefore, the
 251 displacement $\{u\}$ can be defined as:

$$\{u\} = \{u_{max} e^{i\phi}\} e^{i\omega t} \quad (10)$$

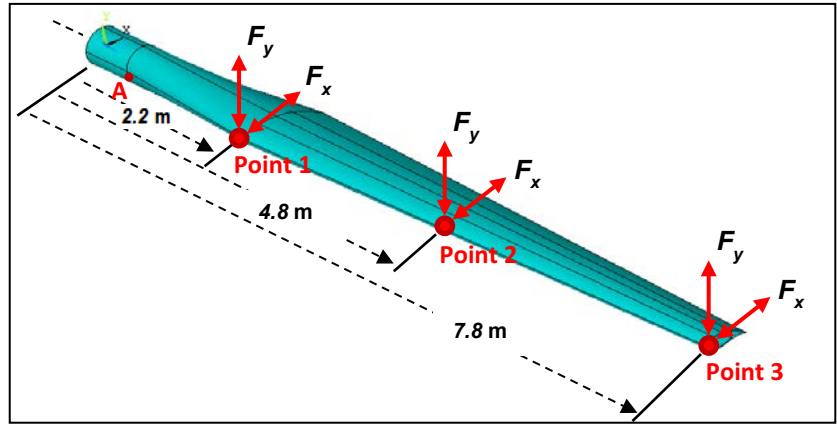
252 Substituting Equation (10) into (9), the dependence on time $e^{i\omega t}$ on both sides of the equation
 253 could be removed. Therefore, the general equation of motion of a system subjected to external
 254 harmonic force could be simplified and presented as a complex equation of harmonic motion as
 255 the following:

$$(-\omega^2[M] + i\omega[C] + [K])(\{u_1\} + i\{u_2\}) = \{F_1\} + i\{F_2\} \quad (11)$$

256 where $\{F_1\}$ and $\{F_2\}$ are the real and imaginary parts of the force vector respectively and $\{u\}$
 257 stands for nodal displacement vector.

258 Using the full method provided in ANSYS, harmonic analysis was performed over a
 259 frequency range [0 50] Hz. In this study, the damping ratio was set as 0.3%, which is based on
 260 damping characteristics identified from comprehensive experiments carried out by Larwood etc.
 261 [15]. However aerodynamic damping was not considered in this analysis. Dynamic responses of
 262 the blade to harmonic excitation for different arrangements of vibrators were investigated. Figure

263 3 shows the potential places for shakers to be mounted on the blade. Section 3.2, Fig. 9, will
 264 demonstrate how these three points were chosen as potential locations.



265
 266 Fig. 3: Potential points for applying vibrator forces on the turbine blade

267 Two forces of 100 N, F_x in x direction and F_y in y direction, were applied simultaneously to
 268 excite modes in both flapwise and edgewise directions. It should be mentioned that the forces
 269 were placed on the blade's edge at a point off the central, longitudinal axis in order to excite
 270 twisting modes apart from flexural bending in directions x and y and consequently maximise
 271 efficiency. The response thus included all the bending and torsional modes combined. Different
 272 scenarios for applying harmonic forces were tested as either an array of dual (i.e. points 1&2,
 273 1&3 and 2&3) or single shakers and finally all three points simultaneously. Harmonic responses
 274 of the blade at three nodes, which are labelled as Point 1, Point 2 and Point 3 in Fig. 3 were
 275 investigated.

276 **2.5 Fatigue life approach**

277 It has been well reported that wind turbines are considered within the category of *fatigue*
 278 *critical machines* [17] and the design of many of their components (especially blades) is dictated
 279 by fatigue considerations. Fatigue failure of turbine blades has been investigated for various
 280 purposes and due to different types of loading [18-21]. The current work has performed a fatigue
 281 analysis subjected to external forced vibration for blade de-icing which makes the purpose of this
 282 life prediction distinct compared to previous work.

283 In an analytical fatigue approach developed recently, Movaghghar and Lvov [10] proposed an
 284 energy-based method for predicting fatigue life and evaluating progressive damage in a
 285 composite wind turbine blade. This work, regardless of yearly wind spectra and random
 286 statistical analysis, only considered maximum stress developed in the blade structure due to any
 287 imposed loading. The approach was found to be readily applicable to different systems (in terms
 288 of loading conditions) while not to be directly dependent on knowing yield stress or the static
 289 strength of material. Although the proposed formula needs two empirical constants, these were
 290 determined and characterized through a series of experimental fatigue test for 30 specimens cut
 291 in different directions from the blade. Full details on deriving the final approach can be found in
 292 reference 10. Finally the following equation was solved in order to determine the number of
 293 cycles to failure (N_f):

$$N_f = 1/\left(\frac{m}{2^n}(n+1) \cdot \left(\sigma_1 \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{E_1} - \frac{\nu_{21}}{E_2} \sigma_2\right) + \sigma_2 \left(\frac{-\nu_{12}}{E_1} \sigma_1 + \frac{\sigma_2}{E_2}\right) + \frac{\tau_{12}^2}{G_{12}}\right)^n\right) \quad (12)$$

294 where m and n are the fixed parameters characterised through fatigue experiments as $m=4.26 \cdot 10^{-$
 295 $25(\text{Pa})^{-n}$ and $n=3.311$.

296 The variables σ_1 , σ_2 and τ_{12} are defined as the maximum principal stresses (normal and shear)
 297 that can have various values depending on loading characteristics. In each loading case FEM
 298 analysis results were obtained via ANSYS in order to be used in Eq. (12).

299 Wind turbines are subjected to different dynamic loads such as aerodynamic loads, changes in
 300 gravitational forces, changes in the wind direction, annual gust, centrifugal force, gyroscopic
 301 forces due to yaw movements and activation of mechanical brake almost all the time while the
 302 harmonic forced vibration caused by shakers will only be applicable occasionally for short
 303 periods during icing. The shakers should be triggered by ice detection system probably a few
 304 times a day during icing weather conditions depending on the rate of ice accumulation on the
 305 blade surface, working for approximately 2 seconds each time [9]. So additional impact on
 306 fatigue life caused by applied vibration is considered to be far smaller than what may be
 307 expected from other common load cases.

308 An acceptable normal fatigue life which is so called *infinite life* varies based on the type of
 309 application and material. In terms of GFRP material, there is a wide range of infinite fatigue life
 310 reported, varying from 10^5 to 10^8 cycles depending on the geometry of reinforcing fibres, lay-up
 311 configuration, laminate orientation, etc. [17]. Hence a number between 10^6 - 10^7 cycles on
 312 average may be considered as a satisfactory range for the blade bearing in mind that shakers are
 313 supposed to work only for a very short period of time over a year. In addition, the intermittent
 314 application of harmonic forces on the blade would lead to a fatigue life higher than what are
 315 presented here due to possible stress relief between icing episodes.

316

317 **3. Sample numerical results**

318 **3.1 Ultrasonic guided waves**

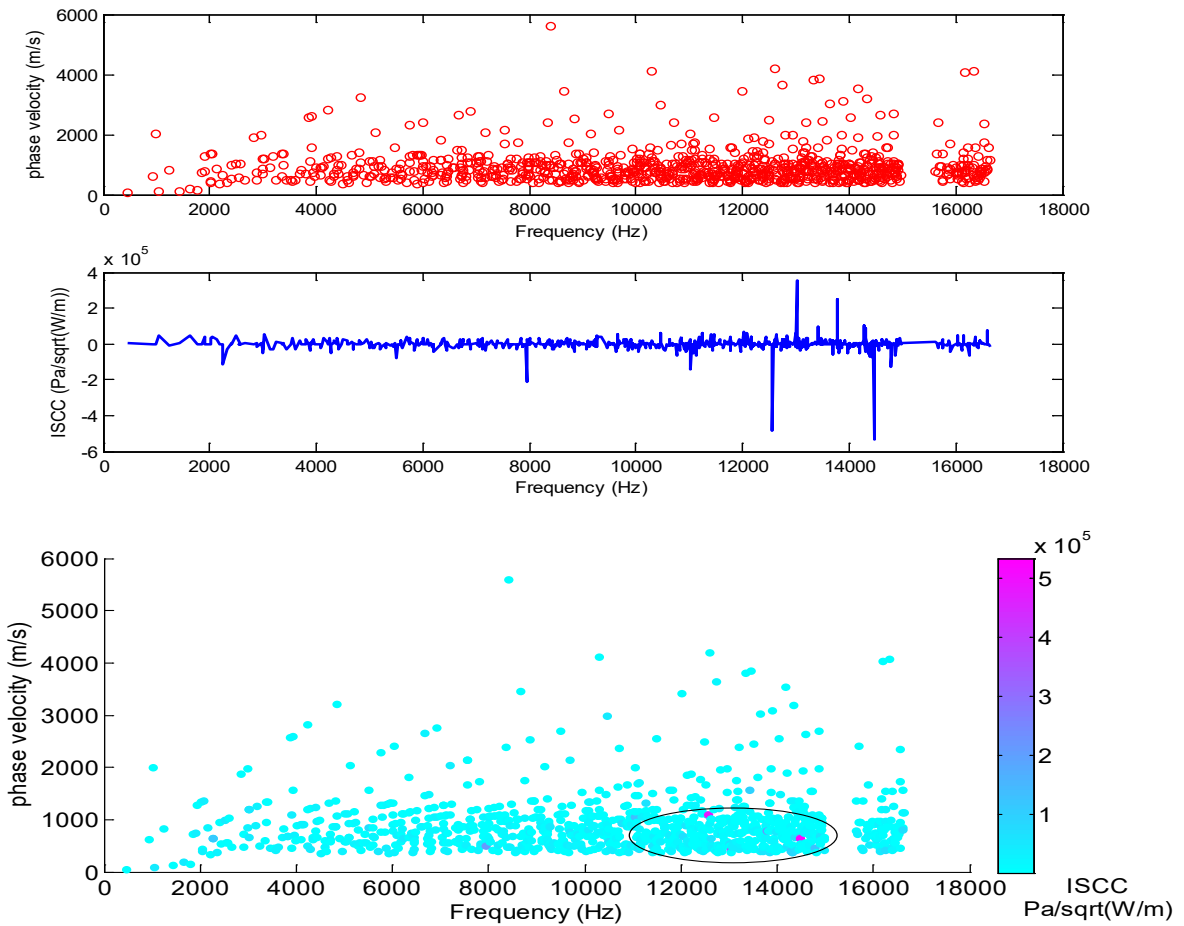
319 A portion of the leading edge of a 7mm thick composite blade with two different ice
 320 thicknesses (0.5 mm and 2 mm) was investigated. The boundary conditions for two edges of the
 321 blade were set as symmetric boundary conditions, where the ultrasound propagated through the
 322 boundaries without any reflection, as shown in Fig. 5. The anisotropic material properties of
 323 glass fibre are listed in Table 1, while the Young's modules, Poisson's ratio and density of the
 324 glaze ice are 8.3GPa, 0.351 and 900kg/m³ respectively. The laminated structure of GFRP is
 325 simplified in this model with orthotropic Young's modules and Poisson's ratio tensors. As an
 326 example, the dispersion curve and ISCC results for a 2-mm ice layer are shown in Fig. 4. In the
 327 middle figure of ISCC against frequency, ISCC values are largest at 12.56 and 14.47 kHz and
 328 relatively large at 7.94, 13.02, and 13.78 kHz. Combining these data with the dispersion curve,
 329 the frequencies at 7.94, 13.02, and 13.78 kHz are dispersive. According to the criteria mentioned
 330 in Section 2.2, the optimised central frequency, phase velocity and wave length of ultrasonic
 331 wave for a 7mm thick leading edge composite blade with 2mm thick glaze ice were chosen as
 332 12.56 kHz, 1047 m/s, 0.083 m respectively. Note that once frequency and wave mode have been
 333 chosen, the phase velocity can be worked out as a dependent parameter. The summary of results
 334 for the two different ice thicknesses is listed in Table 2.

335 Table 2: Summary of simulation results on selection of central frequency, phase velocity and wave length

Optimised parameters	F_c (kHz)	Phase velocity (m/s)	Wave length (m)
GFRP blade + 0.5mm ice	8.342	834	0.1
GFRP blade + 2mm ice	12.56	1047	0.083

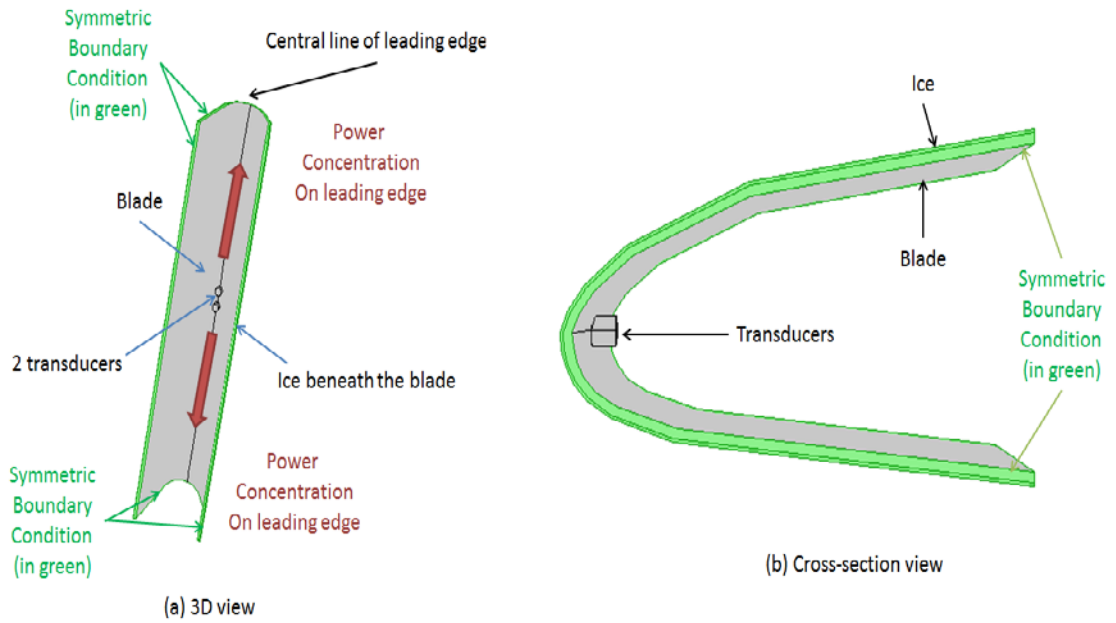
336 The following work regarding power focus via transducer array is based on the values given
 337 in Table 2. The excitation frequency follows the values for different thickness of ice; the time

338 period for simulation is dependent on phase velocity and the distance between ultrasonic
339 transducers which is determined by wavelength.



340
341 Fig. 4: Dispersion curve (above), ISCC curve (mid), Combination of dispersion curve
342 (below) for the blade with 2mm thick glaze ice to find non-dispersive modes of high ISCC indicated by
343 circled area

344 A sine wave was used for excitation of transducers. The transient distribution of stress and
345 displacement could then be calculated. The model to be investigated was a composite blade with
346 7mm thickness at the leading edge covered by a 2-mm thick ice layer. According to the data
347 given in Table 2, the central frequency was set to 12.56 kHz, and the wave length $\lambda=0.1667$ m.
348 The pair of transducers was placed $\lambda/4$ apart on the leading edge, as shown in Fig. 5, to enhance
349 each other. The displacement and stress distribution at different times are shown in Figs. 6 and 7.
350 According to the figures, the ultrasonic wave was guided and the power was concentrated on the
351 leading edge of the blade, gradually propagating to the other parts of the blade.

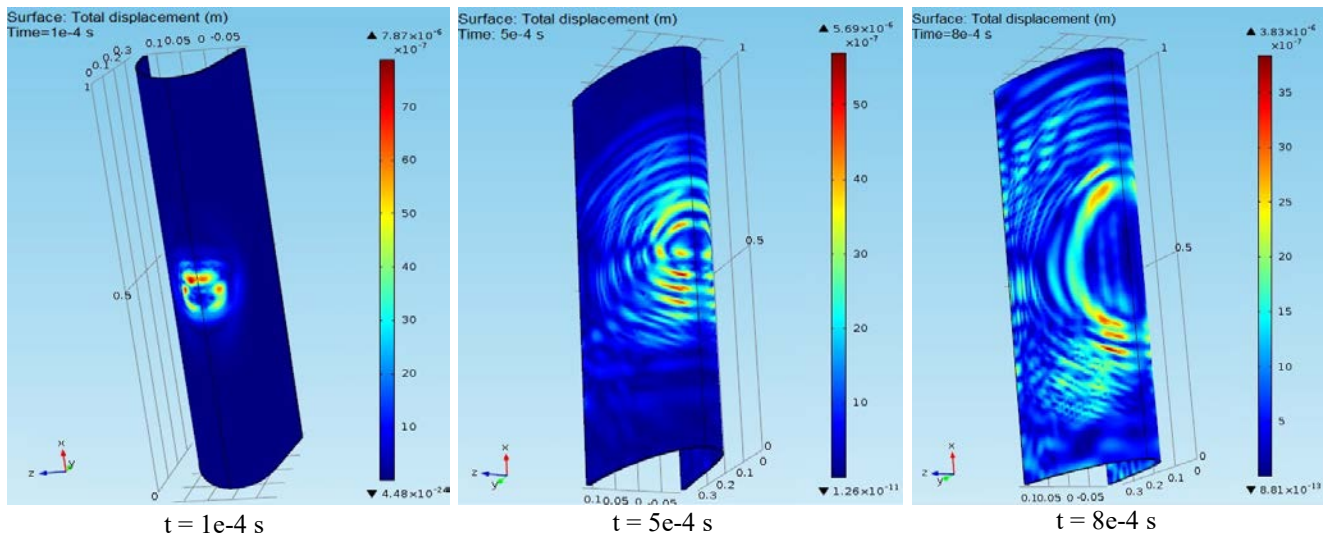


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Fig. 5: Configuration of two transducers on the leading edge of the blade

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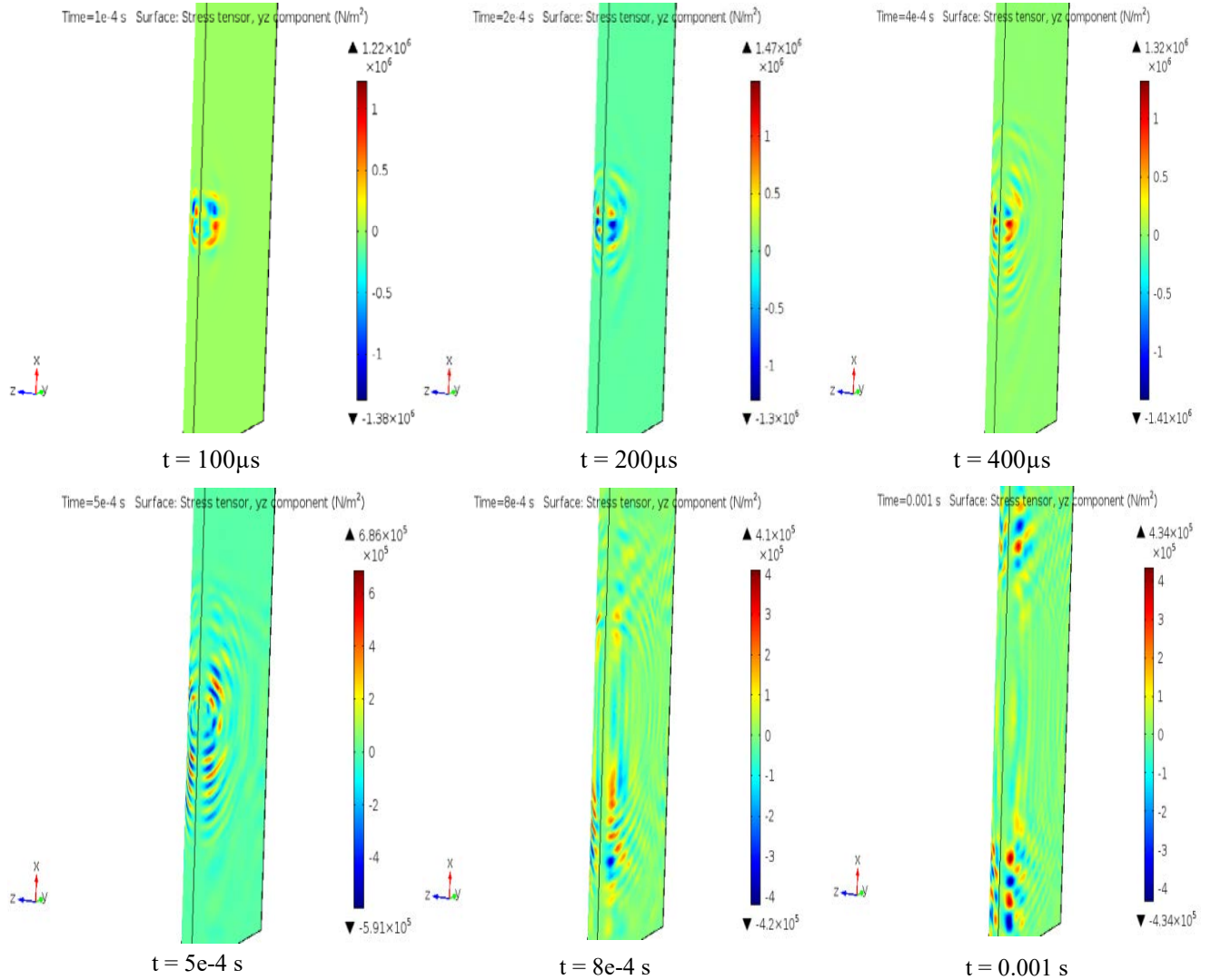


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356

357

Fig. 6: Displacement distribution in the composite blade over time with 2-mm thick ice showing wave propagation and coverage across 1m of the leading edge at $t = 100 \mu s$, $t = 500 \mu s$ and $t = 800 \mu s$



358
 359 Fig. 7: Distribution of the shear stress component σ_{yz} at the interface of ice and GFRP in the leading edge
 360 of the composite blade over time with 2-mm thick ice showing wave propagation and coverage across 1m
 361 of the leading edge from $t = 100 \mu\text{s}$ to $t = 1 \text{ ms}$.

362 Finally, the distribution of displacement and stress for the GFRP blade's leading edge were
 363 calculated. A pair of transducers along with fibre orientation was designed to additively enhance
 364 the induced energy, achieving power concentration at the leading edge. The effective stress
 365 domain induced at the blade varied from 0.4 to 2 MPa which is consistent with the criteria given
 366 by previous experimental tests on composite material [22-24] for removing glaze ice. The power
 367 input was applied in form of force per unit area (selected to be 1 MN/m^2 in this case as an
 368 optimum value) on the transducers. To obtain this, a series of simulations was conducted with
 369 increasing orders of input load for two transducers from 1Pa to 10 MPa to investigate a range of
 370 values. As a result, when the input loads reached 1MPa, the effective shear stress at the interface
 371 of blade and ice achieved the criteria range (0.4 – 2 MPa). Figures 7 show that the arrangement
 372 is able to generate sufficient stress at the blade's edge to remove the ice. It should be noted that
 373 the occurrence of matrix failure or glass fibre failure under these conditions, has been well
 374 investigated both experimentally and theoretically [4, 5, 8, 13]. Additionally, for more clarity,
 375 studies carried out by Zhao et al [25] showed that the levels of shear stress required to
 376 delaminate unidirectional glass fiber-epoxy composite are from 25 Mpa to 72 Mpa due to
 377 different surface treatments while, according to Figs. 7, the maximum shear stress induced at the
 378 leading edge does not exceed 1.5 MPa.

379 To estimate the power consumption involved, suppose a couple of piezoelectric transducers,
 380 each of 1-cm² attachment area and 1-mm oscillating amplitude are utilised within the required
 381 time of 0.001 s for each metre of blade as suggested by the simulation results. The power for
 382 each transducer is calculated as 100 W. To provide de-icing for the first 4 meters of the blade
 383 (which must be covered to compensate for the limitations of low-frequency vibration as noted in
 384 Section 3.2), 8 transducers then will be needed, i.e. 800 W for each blade. With installation of
 385 the transducer array on all three blades of the wind turbine, 2400 W would be the total necessary
 386 power for a 75 kW wind turbine which is 3.2% of the turbine's nominal power output. This value
 387 is a considerable reduction in required power for an ice protection system, compared to the
 388 power consumed by existing thermal de-icing methods which reach around 12% to 15% [2].

389 3.2 Low-frequency vibrations

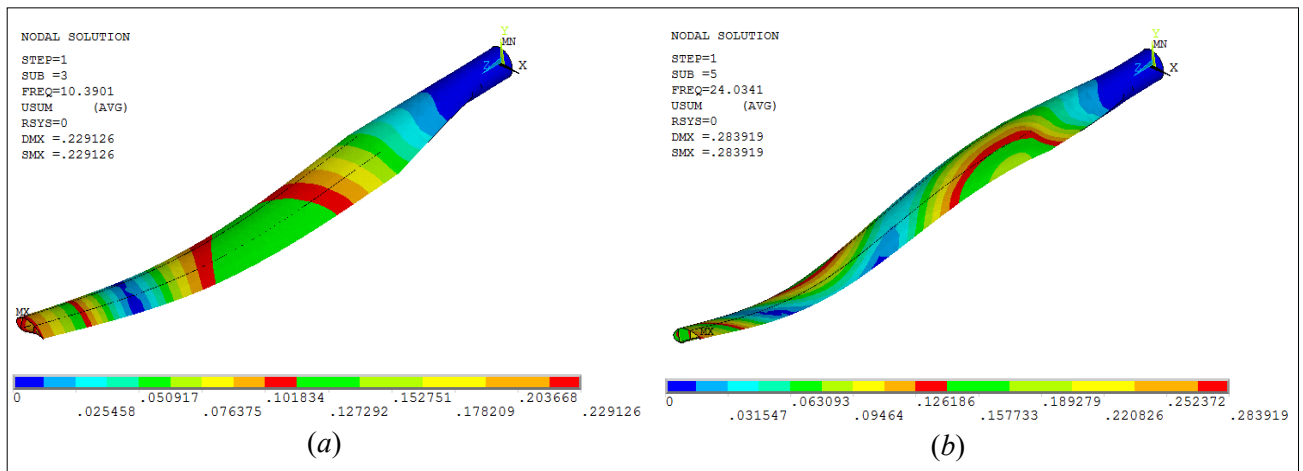
390 The first modes are usually dominant in a frequency or time-domain response of a system (see
 391 Fig. 11). Hence the first three natural frequencies of the two models are shown in Table 3
 392 although in the frequency range of [0-50] Hz, 7 modes were identified.

393 Table 3: Comparison of the developed blade with the similar one from a different work ([10]).

Mode number	Mode shape	Natural frequency (Hz)	
		Current model	Reference
1	First flap-wise bending	2.20	2.28
2	First edge-wise bending	3.81	3.83
3	Second flap-wise bending	10.39	8.25

394 These results imply that the two models, at least in the lower frequencies, which have most
 395 contribution into the dynamics of system, are sufficiently consistent. In addition, the
 396 correspondent mode shapes at these frequencies had a similar trend to those presented in the
 397 reference. The third and fifth mode shapes, for example, are shown in Fig. 8 upon which the total
 398 displacement spectra are displayed. Modal analysis was also used for harmonic analysis to
 399 determine best potential locations for mounting shakers and applying vibratory forces. This
 400 corresponds to a few kinematic factors such as superposition of mode shapes, maximum
 401 displacements and nodal points in each mode shape as described below.
 402

403 The schematic curves of the 1st, 3rd and 5th mode shapes, based on the modal results are shown
 404 in Fig. 8. All of these correspond to bending flexural modes in direction y . Note that the
 405 displayed deflections are exaggerated. Since the second and fourth modes have the same shape as
 406 the first and third modes but in direction x , they are not shown in this diagram. The largest
 407 deflection in all flexural bending modes was found to occur at the blade's tip. For this reason,
 408 point 3 in Figs. 3&9 is a location of top priority to be considered for mounting one of the shakers
 409 to excite the blade. Although the third and fifth modes do not have too much contribution to
 410 dynamical response they have to be considered in overall dynamic performance. They both have
 411 nodes (zero displacement) at point C. To this extent, point C should not be a potential location
 412 for a shaker as generally it would not excite the correct mode at this nodal point and
 413 consequently not cause effective acceleration. There is another node at point B in the 5th mode
 414 while the other two modes also have no large displacement at this point. In the vicinity of point
 415 B, point 2 has considerable displacement in all the three modes which makes it a significant
 416 location to excite the mode shapes and vibrate the blade.



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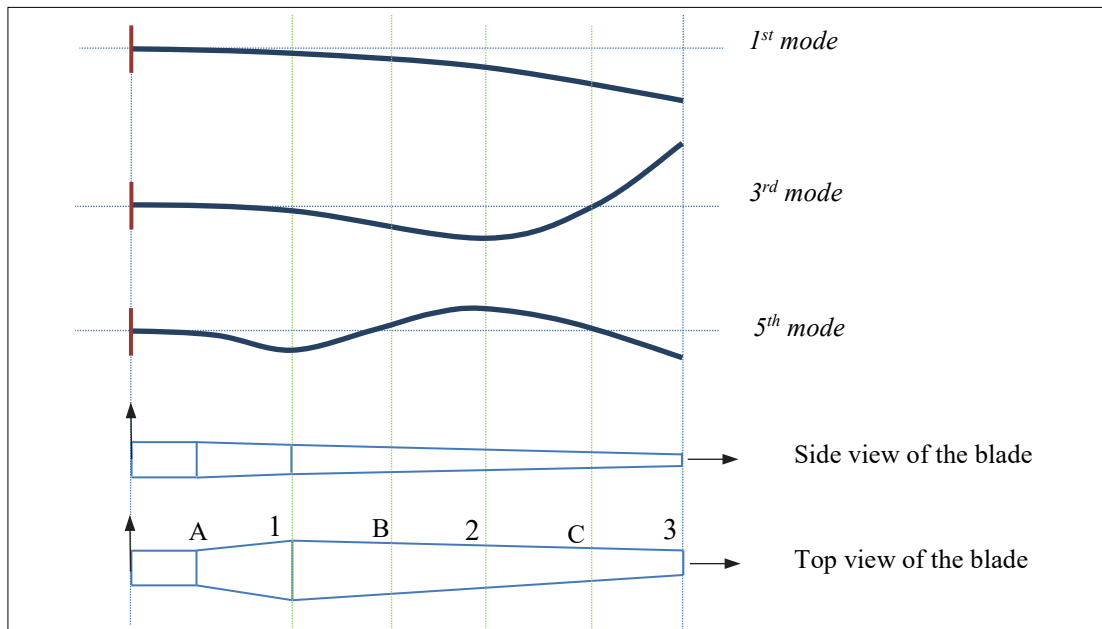
Fig. 8: The third and fifth mode shapes of the developed blade model

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Another choice for mounting a shaker is point 1 because it seems to have almost same effect on all three modes for vibrating the system. Hence the three points 1, 2 and 3 are the best candidates to configure an optimum array for shakers.



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Fig. 9: Flexural bending mode shapes of the blade in direction y

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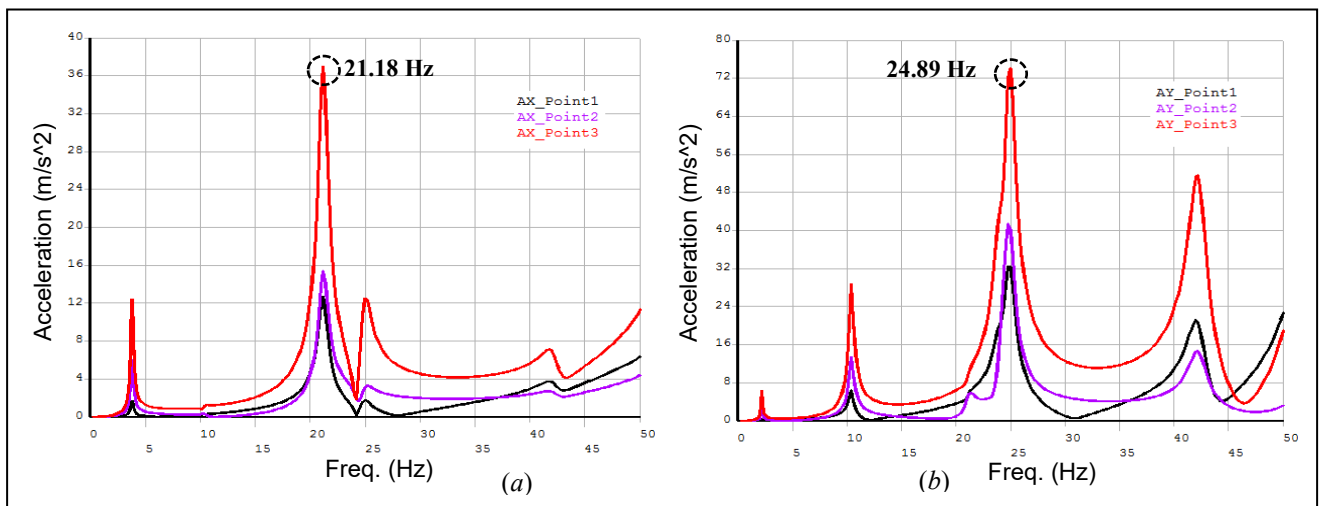
436

As already mentioned, the aim of using low-frequency vibration is to cause sufficient acceleration on the whole blade's surface (and not only the leading edge) for removing ice. For this reason was necessary to identify the frequency at which maximum acceleration occurred. The amplitude of acceleration depends on two factors; displacement of the blade's surface and the frequency of forced oscillations. In this regard a survey was carried out to characterise maximum acceleration for two different types of mode i.e. Flapwise (flexural bending mode in direction y) and Edgewise (flexural bending mode in direction x). Figures 10(a & b) show the accelerations of three points of the blade indicated in Fig. 7 versus excitation frequency within [0 - 50] Hz using the full method of harmonic analysis, in the edgewise and flapwise modes. In this state, one shaker was applied on point 1. Figure 10(a) shows that maximum acceleration occurred at the 4th mode, 21.18 Hz, which is the second flexural bending mode in the edgewise direction. Also Fig. 10(b) shows that the excitation frequency of maximum acceleration in direction y was the 6th mode, 24.89 Hz, which is the first torsion mode. So these two modes

437 (21.18 & 24.89 Hz) are the optimum frequencies in which required acceleration can be induced
438 depending on the locations of shaker(s).

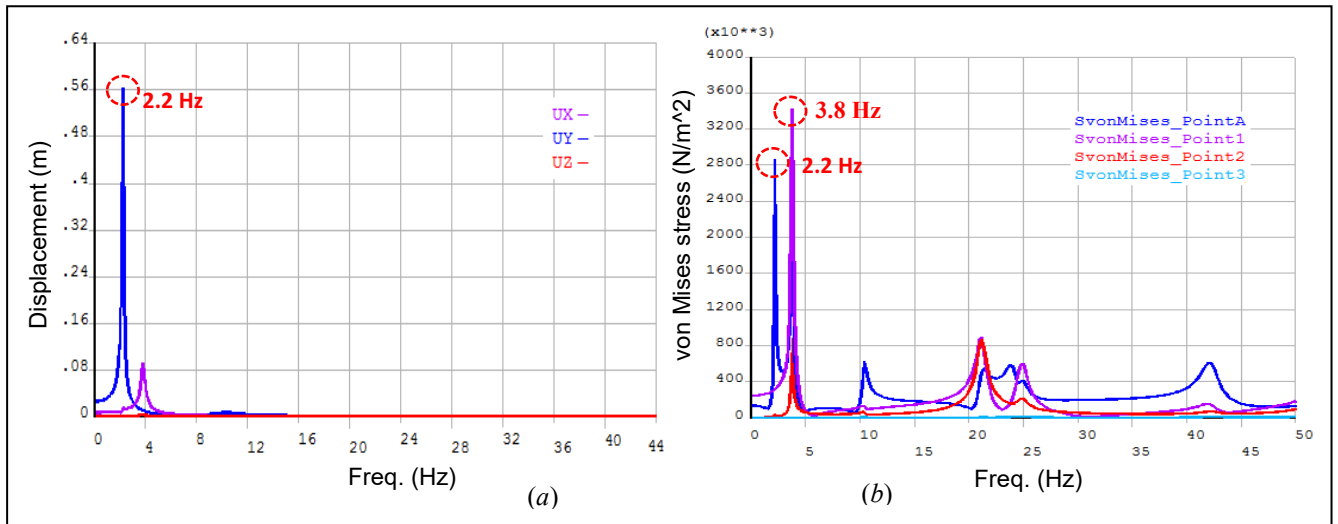
439 Figure 11(a) shows displacement of the blade's tip in three directions x, y and z due to a
440 forced vibration in both x and y directions over a harmonic analysis of frequency range [0-50
441 Hz]. Accordingly Fig. 11(b) shows the corresponding *von Mises* stress values of a potentially
442 critical element near to the blade root. The *von Mises stress* is usually used to check the possible
443 failure of a material subjected to loading. It can be understood from Figure 11(b) that any
444 possible failure due to a typical cyclic load is most likely to take place at 2.2 Hz which is the first
445 resonant frequency of the system.

446 Consequently, as seen in Fig. 11(b), the frequency range at which maximum accelerations
447 occur (21.18 & 24.89 Hz) compared to the critical frequency range (2.2 & 3.8 Hz), generates
448 only small stresses and displacements. According to the results of harmonic analysis calculated
449 from all 7 loading scenarios (i.e. dual shakers at points 1&2, 1&3 and 2&3; single shakers and
450 triple shakers at all three points simultaneously), the peak *von Mises* stresses are all found at the
451 first predominant natural frequencies in x and y directions (2.2 & 3.8 Hz). In other words the
452 frequencies beyond the second mode have little effect in reducing blade fatigue life due to the
453 low stress experienced. This point has been also shown by other works on fatigue analysis of the
454 turbine blades [10, 26]. For this reason, a safe fatigue evaluation would be the one established on
455 the basis of the first mode even though the optimum frequency for de-icing is the higher mode at
456 24.89 Hz.



457
458 Figure 10: Acceleration, (m/s²), induced in the blade calculated for three different points of the blade
459 in the frequency range [0 50] Hz; a) Edgewise direction b) Flapwise direction

460



462
 463 Fig. 11: The response of the blade subjected to forced vibrations a) Displacement of the tip in three
 464 directions x, y and z, b) von Mises stress calculated at four different locations of the blade (points A, 1, 2
 465 and 3 as marked in Fig. 9) versus frequency

466 Table 4 summarizes the maximum values of displacement and acceleration occurring in the
 467 three different points of the blade (1, 2 & 3) at the optimum frequency (i.e 24.89 Hz) when the
 468 100-N, x - y harmonic forces are applied at these three points simultaneously. Comparing the
 469 displacements at three points, it can be seen that maximum accelerations of the blade in flapwise
 470 and edgewise directions both appeared at the end of the blade. The acceleration is more than 25g
 471 at the points 2 & 3 which is sufficient to de-ice the blade according to the preliminary
 472 experimental tests [9]. This means that the induced vibration at point 1 could weaken the
 473 ice/substrate bond but for full de-icing, vibration should be complemented by the use of
 474 ultrasonic transducers. In other words, the distance between point A and point 2 in the blade
 475 which is almost 4 meters (see Figs. 3 & 9) must be covered by guided waves through mounting
 476 one pair of transducers per one meter of the blade (according to the US wave results). The other
 477 potential scenarios for mounting shakers were found to be ineffective for generating enough
 478 acceleration for de-icing as they did not match the acceleration criteria. For this reason only the
 479 results corresponding to the successful scenario have been shown in Table 4.

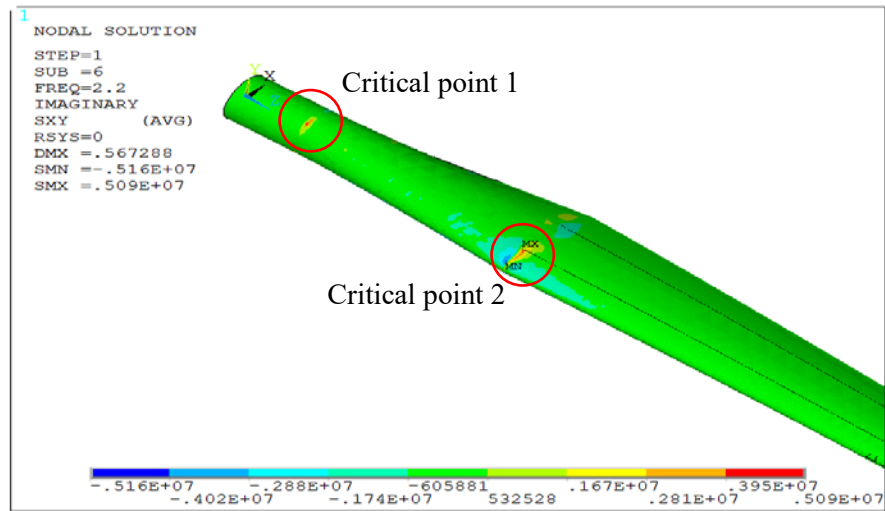
480 Table 4: Displacement and acceleration induced in the blade at the frequency of 24.89 Hz when all
 481 three points are excited simultaneously

	Displacement (m)		Acceleration (m/s^2)	
	Edgewise direction (X-axis)	Flapwise direction (Y-axis)	Edgewise direction (X-axis)	Flapwise direction (Y-axis)
Point 1	0.0347	0.0464	81.615	218.685
Point 2	0.1257	0.3305	121.642	252.966
Point 3	0.2590	0.8466	197.643	298.261

482
 483 In order to know whether or not the resonant vibration induced by the shakers could damage
 484 the structural integrity of the blade, the areas undergoing maximum stress, i.e. critical points of
 485 the blade, were identified through stress distribution in harmonic analysis. The first and second
 486 natural frequencies, 2.20 Hz and 3.81 Hz were the predominant, critical frequencies. Therefore,
 487 the maximum stresses created by harmonic loading at these two frequencies were investigated to
 488 form a basis for fatigue analysis of the blade.

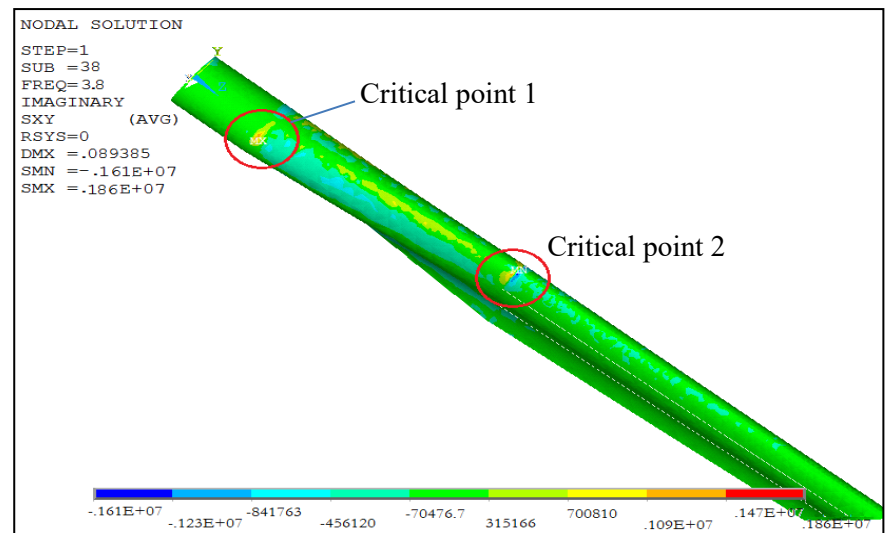
489 Figure 12a shows the distribution of the principal shear stress (τ_{12}) upon the blade with a
 490 shaker placed at the blade's tip (point 3 in Figs. 3 & 9) when $f = 2.2$ Hz. Correspondingly the

491 distribution of von Mises stress upon the blade while it is excited at the second natural frequency
 492 ($f = 3.8$ Hz) has been captured and shown in Fig. 12b.



(a)

493



(b)

494

495 Fig. 12: Stress distribution upon blade due to a 100-N harmonic force applied at the blade's tip; a)
 496 shear stress when $f = 2.2$ Hz b) shear stress when $f = 3.8$ Hz. Critical points are circled.

497 The two areas marked by red circles in Fig.12 are critical (labelled as A & 1 in Fig. 9). These
 498 two areas are critical at almost all the natural frequencies of the blade when they are excited. The
 499 higher stresses at these two areas are caused by 1) the large bending moment near to the blade
 500 root and 2) the change in smoothness and tilt of the blade geometry at the second critical area
 501 which increases the stress concentration coefficient.

502 3.3 Fatigue life

503 Different possible scenarios in terms of loading arrangement were considered in the analysis
 504 and approximate fatigue life in each case was derived and presented. In each case, the three
 505 stress values i.e. σ_1 , σ_2 and τ_{12} had to be calculated. For example, considering point 1, shown in
 506 Fig. 9, as the critical point, the maximum values were $\sigma_1 = 31.4 * 10^6 N/m^2$, $\sigma_2 = 15.2 * 10^6 N/m^2$
 507 and $\tau_{12} = 2.81 * 10^6 N/m^2$ which consequently led to $N_f = 1.42 * 10^7$ cycles. Similar
 508 calculations and considerations were performed for other scenarios of shaker arrays. All these

509 results have been summarised in Table 5. Two samples of stress distributions upon the blade
 510 have already been shown in Fig. 12(a&b). The data given in Table 5 show that most of the
 511 fatigue life cycles are within the acceptable range mentioned in section 2.5 (10^5 to 10^8 cycles for
 512 a standard life of the blade [17]). However, it is worth noting that since vibrators only operate for
 513 a very short time in each activation (roughly 2 sec), this number will correspond to a much
 514 longer period than the turbine life standard (20 year) for normal operating cycles under wind
 515 loading.

516 Note that the calculated N_f here, has not considered the effects of normal operating cycles
 517 directly and only involves the effect of applying harmonic forces by low frequency vibrations.
 518 The fatigue analysis was based on the critical mode shape of the blade i.e. the first mode (2.2 Hz)
 519 as one of the conditions for using the original fatigue approach (Eq. 12). In this dominant mode,
 520 the blade always experiences maximum stresses and displacements. On the other hand the largest
 521 acceleration required for removing ice was found to occur at higher modes (24.89 Hz) which
 522 should be selected as the operational frequency. This reduces the danger of structural damage
 523 because the higher frequency not only ensures ice removal by inducing the largest acceleration
 524 but also decreases the stress compared to the dominant frequency (2.2 Hz) which consequently
 525 leads to significant increase in fatigue life values given in Table 5.

526 Table 5: summary of predicted fatigue life due to applying shakers of different positions (arrays) on
 527 the blade in its first natural frequency

Shaker(s) arrangement	Single Point 1	Single Point 2	Single Point 3	Dual points 1&2	Dual points 1&3	Dual points 2&3	All points 1&2&3
N_f	2.66 e15	6.36e9	1.42 e7	2.61 e9	1.001 e7	1.54 e6	1.20 e6

528

529

530 4. Concluding remarks

531 A strategy has been developed to maximise the anti-icing/de-icing performance of a typical
 532 wind turbine blade. It consists of the combined use of ultrasonic guided waves which internally
 533 excite material particles and low-frequency vibrations to provide simultaneous external shaking
 534 of the whole structure of the turbine blade without compromising fatigue life. The two relatively
 535 efficient approaches combine to compensate for each other's deficiencies and collectively can
 536 provide a fully effective ice protection system.

537 Regarding the ultrasound technique on its own, dispersion curves and ISCC coefficients were
 538 calculated for an actual blade made from composite for the selection of wave mode and central
 539 frequency. The optimised central frequency, phase velocity and wave length of ultrasonic waves
 540 according to different situations including material and thickness of ice were determined. These
 541 outcomes provided guidance for the selection of frequency and wave mode for the design of
 542 transducer arrays. Investigation of allocated transducer arrays in order to focus energy and guide
 543 the waves led to selection and application of a pair of transducers in fibre orientation to generate
 544 sufficient shear stress on the leading edge for ice removal. Results showed that the ultrasonic
 545 wave was guided and power was concentrated on the central line of the blade leading edge,
 546 consuming considerably less power than existing thermal de-icing methods.

547 To investigate the structural response of the blade to forced vibration induced by shakers, a
 548 FEM model of the wind turbine blade was developed. The first 7 natural frequencies and mode
 549 shapes of the model were extracted and studied. Likewise the best potential points for mounting
 550 shakers were proposed as a result of modal analysis, based on superposing mode shapes and their
 551 nodes. This made it possible to characterize the optimum points and directions (x and y) at which
 552 the blade should be excited. In the following, harmonic analysis within a low frequency band ([0

553 - 50] Hz) was performed to investigate the effects of forced vibration on the wind turbine blade.
554 Different shaker arrays covering 7 loading states in total, consisting of single, double and triple
555 arrangements, were considered. It was found that an optimum topology for the shakers is a three-
556 vibrator set-up i.e. the loading conditions in which all the three potential points are excited in
557 both flapwise and edgewise directions. In this arrangement, the required acceleration for
558 removing ice may be induced on the major surface of the blade, particularly the areas that cannot
559 be covered by ultrasound waves. Also the critical stress values in each case were calculated for
560 fatigue life prediction. The fatigue analysis showed that vibrating the blade at such frequencies
561 complies with standards of composite blades regarding fatigue life. In fact, they all led to the
562 tolerable loading cycles that do not apply any risk to the structural integrity of the blade.

563 It can be noted that the interaction between the rotating blade and the distortion due to
564 vibrations can be a topic for future work, especially an analysis of the dynamical balancing of the
565 turbine's blades. Future work will also concentrate on prototyping the developed system and
566 experimental test rigs.

567

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